Macrophage Il-1beta protects against mycobacterial infection downstream of

Hif-1alpha in zebrafish.

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Abstract

Drug resistant mycobacteria are a rising problem worldwide. There is an

urgent need to understand the immune response to TB to identify host targets that, if

targeted therapeutically, could be used to tackle these currently untreatable

infections. Here, we use an Il-1β fluorescent transgenic line to show that there is an

early innate immune pro-inflammatory response to well-established zebrafish models

of inflammation and *Mycobacterium marinum* (Mm) infection. We demonstrate that

host-derived hypoxia signalling, mediated by the Hif-1α transcription factor, can

prime macrophages with increased levels of Il-1β in the absence of infection.

Moreover, Il-1β upregulates neutrophil antimicrobial nitric oxide production and is

protective against infection. Our data link Hif-1α to proinflammatory macrophage Il-

1β transcription during early mycobacterial infection and highlight how host-derived

Hif-1α may be a promising drug target to stimulate the innate immune response to

better deal with infection.

Introduction

Pulmonary tuberculosis (TB) is a major world health problem caused by the

bacillus *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (*Mtb*) (1). It is a current priority for infectious

disease research due to increasing rates of multi- and totally- drug resistant strains

causing high levels of mortality, especially in the immunocompromised (2).

Mycobacteria are specialised at evading killing mechanisms of the immune system

to survive. Mycobacteria and immune cells create a highly organised niche, called

the granuloma, in which Mtb can proliferate or enter a latent phase, protected from

the immune system (3, 4). In human Mtb infection, bacteria first encounter cells of

the innate immune system in and around the lungs, either macrophages in the

alveolar space or neutrophils in the surrounding capillary vasculature, before the involvement of adaptive immunity and granuloma formation (5, 6). These initial phagocytosis events are followed by the attraction of other innate immune cells which signal to draining lymph nodes to activate the adaptive immune response, signs of which only become apparent 3 to 8 weeks after infection in humans (6). Although granuloma formation is reasonably well characterised, the initial interactions of the bacteria with the host innate immune cells are less well defined. Mtb, like many other bacterial and pathogenic microbes, triggers a pro-inflammatory immune response via the activation of TLRs (Toll-like receptors) (7). The activation of the innate immune cells via TLR signalling is a critical early host response to many invading pathogens for successful clearance of infection and, in the absence of TLR signalling, mycobacteria grow unchecked to cause systemic infection (8). Although mycobacteria can hijack host leukocytes to create a niche for their growth, in zebrafish models many of the initial Mm inoculum are neutralised by macrophages and neutrophils before infection can take hold (9, 10). Early mycobacterial interaction with host leukocytes is critical for the pathogen, and manipulation of the macrophage by the bacteria is required for establishment of a permissive niche in which the bacteria can grow and build its host derived protective structure, the granuloma (11, 12). Greater understanding of the diverse phenotype of macrophages immediately after infection may allow therapeutic tuning to provide maximal early control of mycobacteria during infection (13, 14). Recent studies in optically translucent zebrafish infection models have indicated that initial interactions between Mm and macrophages and neutrophils are more complex than originally thought, with successive rounds of bacterial internalisation and leukocyte cell death leading to

granuloma formation (9, 15, 16). The immune molecular mechanisms involved in

these early processes are poorly understood.

We have previously demonstrated in a zebrafish/Mm model of TB that the initial

immune response to infection can be enhanced by stabilising host-derived Hif-1α

(hypoxia inducible factor -1 alpha), leading to reduced bacterial burden (17). Hif-1α

is a major transcriptional regulator of the cellular response to hypoxia, that has been

implicated in the activation of macrophages and neutrophils during infection and

inflammatory processes (18, 19). Stabilisation of Hif-1α in zebrafish upregulated pro-

inflammatory neutrophil nitric oxide (NO) production leading to lower mycobacterial

burden (17, 20). The mechanisms by which pro-inflammatory cytokines associated

with this NO increase are regulated by Hif-1α signalling is not known.

IL-1β is a critical macrophage-derived activator of immune cells with wide-ranging

and complex effects on immune signalling and downstream pathways. IL-1β has

been shown to be upregulated in the onset and formation of Mm and Mtb

granulomas (21–23). We hypothesised that IL-1β would be activated in specific

immune cell populations early in Mm infection, (within 1-day post-infection, pre-

granuloma formation) and that Hif-1α acts via altered expression of this important

pro-inflammatory mediator to confer protection against mycobacterial infection. Here,

using the zebrafish Mm model and fluorescent transgenic lines, we show that that *il-*

1β is transcriptionally upregulated in macrophages early during *in vivo* infection.

Stabilisation of Hif-1α upregulates *il-1β* transcription in macrophages in the absence

of infection. *il-1β* signalling is required for protective NO production by neutrophils

and a subsequent decrease in infection. Our data indicate that protective Hif-1α

mediated NO is at least partially regulated by the key pro-inflammatory mediator Il-

1β, increasing our understanding of the mechanism of action of the potential

therapeutic target, Hif-1α, as a host-derived factor in TB.

Materials and Methods

Zebrafish and bacterial strains

Zebrafish were raised and maintained on a 14:10-hour light/dark cycle at 28 degrees

C, according to standard protocols (24), in UK Home Office approved facilities at The

Bateson Centre aquaria at the University of Sheffield. Strains used were Nacre

(wildtype), *Tg(mpeg1:mCherry-F)ump2Tg,* *TgBAC(il-1β:eGFP)sh445*

Tg(mpeg1:mCherryCAAX)sh378 and *Tg(lyz:Ds- RED2)nz50* (25–28).

Mm infection experiments were performed using M. marinum M (ATCC #BAA-535),

containing a psMT3-mCherry or psMT3 mCrimson vector (29). Injection inoculum

was prepared from an overnight liquid culture in the log-phase of growth

resuspended in 2% polyvinylpyrrolidone40 (PVP40) solution (CalBiochem) as

previously described (30). 100-150 colony forming units (CFU) were injected into the

caudal vein at 28-30hpf as previously described (31).

Generation of *TgBAC(il-1α:GFP)sh445* transgenic and *il-1β^{SH446}/ il-1β^{SH446}

mutant zebrafish

An eGFP SV40 polyadenylation cassette inserted at the *il-1β* ATG start site of

zebrafish BAC CH-211-147h23 using established protocols (32). Inverted Tol2

elements were inserted into the chloramphenicol coding sequence and the resulting

modified BAC was used to generate *TgBAC(il-1β:eGFP)sh445*.

il-1-/- (*il-1β^{SH446}/ il-1β^{SH446}*) mutant embryos were generated by CRISPR-Cas9

mediated mutagenesis targeted around an Mwo1 restriction site in the third exon of

il-1β using the method described by Hruscha et al (2013) and the template sequence

5'-

AAAGCACCGACTCGGTGCCACTTTTTCAAGTTGATAACGGACTAGCCTTATTTTA

ACTTGCTATTTCTAGCTCTAAAAC**TGAGCATGTCCAGCACCTC**GGCTATAGTGA

GT CGTATTACGC-3' (*il-1β* target sequence in bold). PCR with il-1gF 5'-

TAAGGAAAAACTCACTTC-3' and il-1gR 5'ATACGTGGACATGCTGAA3' and

subsequent Mwo1 digestion were used for genotyping.

Morpholino knockdown of *il-1β*

The *il-1bβ* morpholino (Genetools) was used as previously reported (33). A standard

control morpholino (Genetools) was used as a negative control.

Confocal microscopy of transgenic larvae

1dpi and 4dpi transgenic zebrafish larvae infected with fluorescent Mm strains were

mounted in 0.8-1% low melting point agarose (Sigma-Aldrich) and imaged on a Leica

TCS-SPE confocal on an inverted Leica DMi8 base and imaged using 20x or 40x

objective lenses.

For quantification purposes acquisition settings and area of imaging (in the caudal

vein region) were kept the same across groups. Corrected total cell fluorescence

was calculated for each immune-stained cell using Image J as previously described

(17, 20).

Tailfin transection

Inflammation was induced in zebrafish embryos by tail transection at 2 or 3dpf as described previously (34). Embryos were anesthetised by immersion in 0.168 mg/mL Tricaine (Sigma-Aldrich), and tail transection was performed using a microscalpel (World Precision Instruments).

qPCR of *il-1β*

qPCR was performed on 1dpi Mm infected (or PVP control) embryos as previously described (35). The following primers were used: *il-1β*, accession number NM_212844, forward primer: GAACAGAATGAAGCACATCAAACC, reverse primer: ACGGCACTGAATCCACCAC, *ppial* control, accession number AY391451, forward primer: ACACTGAAACACGGAGGCAAG, reverse primer: CATCCACAACCTTCCCGAACAC.

Bacterial pixel count

Mm mCherry infected zebrafish larvae were imaged at 4dpi on an inverted Leica DMi8 with a 2.5x objective lens. Brightfield and fluorescent images were captured using a Hammamatsu OrcaV4 camera. Bacterial burden was assessed using dedicated pixel counting software as previously described (36).

RNA injections

Embryos were injected with dominant *hif-1αb* variant RNA at the one cell stage as previously described (19). *hif-1α* variants used were dominant active (DA) and dominant negative (DN) *hif-1α* (ZFIN: *hif1ab*). Phenol red (PR) (Sigma Aldrich) was used as a vehicle control.

Anti-nitrotyrosine antibody staining

Larvae were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde in PBS overnight at 4°C and nitrotyrosine

levels were immune-labelled using a rabbit polyclonal anti-nitrotyrosine antibody

(Merck Millipore 06-284) and were detected using an Alexa Fluor conjugated

secondary antibody (Invitrogen Life Technologies) as previously described (17, 20).

Statistical analysis

All data were analysed (Prism 7.0, GraphPad Software) using unpaired, two-tailed t-

tests for comparisons between two groups and one-way ANOVA (with Bonferonni

post-test adjustment) for other data. P values shown are: *$P < .05$, **$P < .01$, and

***$P < .001$.

Results

Hif-1α mediated nitrotyrosine production is Myd-88 independent.

We have previously shown that stabilisation of Hif-1α induces pro-inflammatory

neutrophil nitric oxide production, via inducible nitric oxide (iNOS) (17, 20). First, we

aimed to determine whether Hif-1α induced increase in nitrotyrosine is dependent on

TLR signalling, having previously demonstrated that Mm activation of nitrotyrosine is

TLR mediated (20). We therefore knocked down TLR signalling by targeting a critical

adapter of TLR signalling, *myd88*, using a well-characterised and validated

morpholino (an antisense oligonucleotide that blocks translation) (37). The *myd88*

morpholino was unable to block the DA Hif-1α mediated nitrotyrosine signal (Figure

1A and B). These data indicate that DA Hif-1α mediated pro-inflammatory signalling

is independent of TLR signalling and therefore likely to be separate from bacterial

sensing mechanisms. We hypothesised that this increase in NO may be a part of an

increased pro-inflammatory profile in innate immune cells.

Inflammation induces GFP expression in a *TgBAC(il-1β:GFP)SH445* transgenic

line

Il-1β is a major macrophage-derived pro-inflammatory cytokine that is upregulated in

both inflammation and infection. We have previously shown upregulation of *il-1β*

message after induction of inflammation by qPCR and wholemount *in situ*

hybridisation (WISH) in the zebrafish (38). We hypothesised that Il-1β is a major pro-

inflammatory cytokine that would be upregulated by both mycobacterial infection and

Hif-1α stabilisation. To investigate *il-1β* expression *in vivo*, we developed a BAC

(bacterial artificial chromosome) derived *il-1β* promoter driven GFP line, *TgBAC(il-*

1β:GFP)SH445, to assess *il-1β* expression in real-time during mycobacterial

infection. We sought to examine *il-1β:GFP* expression in our well-established

inflammation assay before investigating its expression during mycobacterial

infection. *il-1β:GFP* recapitulates *il-1β* mRNA expression in response to tail

transection (Figure 2A and B) (38), although, as expected, the synthesis of GFP

occurs over a longer timescale than that of *il-1β* mRNA detected by WISH.

Neutrophils are the first cells to respond to tailfin transection with increased *il-*

1β:GFP, with fluorescence first observed at 1hpw (hours post-wounding) and still

present at 6hpw (Figure 2C and D). Macrophages are slower to respond, with no *il-*

1β:GFP expression observed at 1hpw, with expression present at 6hpw (Figure 2E).

Having demonstrated that the il-1β:GFP is responsive to inflammation in similar cells

over a similar timespan as the *in situ* hybridisation, we sought to investigate its

regulation during mycobacterial infection.

il-1β:GFP is upregulated in macrophages at early and later stage Mm infection

The initial phase of Mm infection in zebrafish is characterised by a short period of

greatly increased pro-inflammatory signalling (before 1 day post-infection, dpi) where

the immune system reacts to Mm infection. This is followed by a lag-phase of

decreased activity which allows for granuloma formation between 2-3dpi, before

cytokine levels rise again in formed larval granulomas at 4dpi (9, 39). However, the

levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines have only been previously studied at a

transcriptional level in whole embryos or FACS sorted cells, rather than detecting

levels *in situ*, over time, in an intact organism (39).

il-1β is one of the most readily detectable pro-inflammatory cytokines during early

stages of Mm infection, upregulated 1.7 fold at 1dpi by wholebody qPCR, compared

to PVP injection controls (Figure 3A). We used the *TgBAC(il-1β:GFP)sh445* line to

show that GFP is expressed in cells proximal to Mm infection sites at pre-granuloma

phases (1dpi) and in larval granulomas (4dpi) (Figure 3B). The earliest timepoint at

which faint *il-1β:GFP* could be detected by confocal microscopy was between 6 and

8 hours post infection, consistent with rapid transcriptional activation of the *il-1β*

promoter after infection (Figure 3C) and similar to the timing of macrophage *il-*

1β:GFP expression after tailfin transection (Figure 2D). *il-1β:GFP* was predominantly

upregulated in infected macrophages at 1dpi (Figure 3D) and these macrophages

were activated in appearance, with highly dynamic cellular processes (Supplemental

Movie 1). These data demonstrate that during early stages of infection *il-1β* is

transcriptionally activated in infected macrophages as part of an early pro-

inflammatory response.

Stabilisation of Hif-1α upregulates *il-1β:GFP* at early stages of infection

We have previously shown that stabilisation of Hif-1α induces neutrophil pro-

inflammatory nitric oxide production (17, 20). We hypothesised that this may be a

part of an increased pro-inflammatory profile in innate immune cells, therefore we

tested whether Hif-1α is upregulating a pro-inflammatory program in the absence of

infection using the *il-1β:GFP* transgenic line. Dominant active Hif-1α significantly

increased *il-1β:GFP* expression in the absence of Mm infection at 2dpf, while

dominant negative Hif-1α caused no difference in *il-1β:GFP* expression (Figure 4A

and B). These data indicate that *il-1β* expression is part of a pro-inflammatory

response to increased Hif-1α levels, a response that could aid the host response to

Mm challenge.

Inhibition of *il-1β* increases Mm burden and inhibits the Hif-1α nitric oxide

response

Il-1β is a major pro-inflammatory cytokine that in many infections is instrumental in

coordinating the immune response (40, 41). We sought to test whether Il-1β was

important in early Mm infection. When Il-1β was blocked using a well-characterised

and validated *il-1β* morpholino, the morphants showed significantly increased

infection compared to a control morphants (Figure 5A). DA Hif-1α was not sufficient

to reduce Mm infection levels when *il-1β* expression was blocked (Figure 5A)

suggesting that the *il-1β* response to Mm infection is critical to control infection.

These results were supported by generation of an *il-1β* null mutant (*il-1β^SH446^/ il-

*1β^SH446^*), in which DA Hif-1α also did not decrease infection, while in wildtype siblings

infection was reduced (Figure S1 and Figure 5B).

We have previously demonstrated that inhibiting production of nitric oxide by Nos2

can block the antimicrobial effect of DA Hif-1α (17). Blocking Il-1β production also

significantly dampened the neutrophil nitric oxide response after Mm infection at 1dpi

(Figure 5C-E). Furthermore, Il-1β MO blocked the increased production of

nitrotyrosine by DA Hif-1α (Figure 5C-E). These results show that Hif-1α activation of

Nos2 may, at least in part, be acting through *il-1β* activation and hint at a much more

complex regulation of pro-inflammatory signalling by Hif-1α than simply acting on Hif

responsive elements (HREs) in the promoter of Nos2.

Discussion

Antimicrobial resistance is a rising problem in TB infections worldwide and there is

an urgent need to understand the regulation of host-immunity by TB so that we can

target host-derived factors to help tackle disease. Our data identify an early pro-

inflammatory response, involving macrophage *il-1β* expression, that is important for

the onset of early disease. Using a well-established zebrafish Mm model of TB, we

show that manipulation of Hif-1α can stimulate this pro-inflammatory network, aiding

the host fight against infection. Specifically, we identify that Hif-1α driven Il-1β

contributes to the NO response, a response we have previously shown to be host

protective (17, 20).

Here, we took advantage of a novel transgenic zebrafish line to understand the

dynamics and cell specificity of *il-1β* production in inflammation and mycobacterial

infection, specifically focussing on the understudied early stages (<1dpi) of the

innate immune response to TB infection. We confirmed that the *il-1β:GFP* expression

of our line was faithful to *il-1β* transcription by following its expression in a well-

characterised tailfin transection model of inflammation and comparison to *in situ*

hybridisation data (34, 38). Furthermore, the expression pattern of our BAC

transgenic line closely matches another recently published BAC promoter driven *il-*

1β transgenic (42). The *il-1β:GFP* line also displayed some GFP signal in muscle

and epithelial cells in the tail. Similar GFP expression can be seen when driven by

NF-kB response elements (43) but not by WISH, suggesting this might be off-target

expression resulting from the promoter region missing some negative regulatory

elements, however, it could also be specific expression that is at too low a level to be

detectable by *in situ* hybridisation. Although previous studies have shown *il-1β:GFP*

to be upregulated in leukocytes at a tailfin transection (42), we combined the *il-*

1β:GFP line with leukocyte specific transgenics to show that neutrophils are the first

to respond at the wound, with macrophages both migrating to and upregulating *il-*

1β:GFP at later timepoints.

The Mtb granuloma is widely studied, both in terms of immunohistochemistry of

human granulomas, and in mammalian models (44–46). These studies have

demonstrated that the granuloma is rich in pro-inflammatory cytokine production.

This pro-inflammatory environment has been observed in human TB, with IL-1β

found to be in high levels in pleural fluid from TB patients with granulomas present

(47). Here we observe that the pro-inflammatory response is present at pre-

granuloma stages. Lack of a pro-inflammatory response has been linked to poor

treatment outcomes indicating that this host response is important even in the

presence of antimycobacterial agents (48). The upregulation of proinflammatory

cytokines in mycobacterial infection has also been shown in the zebrafish/Mm larval

model of TB granulomas, but previous studies have mainly relied on immunohistochemistry and/or transcriptomics data from either wholebody larvae or FACs sorted immune cell populations (25, 39). Using live cell imaging we found that *il-1β* transcription was upregulated at the granuloma formation stage, however we also demonstrated that it is upregulated before the granuloma stage within 6-8 hours hpi. Upon infection *il-1β:GFP* expression was predominantly upregulated in infected macrophages indicating that within the first 24 hours of infection there is a macrophage pro-inflammatory response. Murine and human cell studies have indicated that macrophages are able to produce IL-1β a few hours after mycobacterial challenge indicating that an early response is also present in mammalian systems, at least on a cellular level (21, 49). Our observations are in line with our previous observation of Hif-1α signalling early after infection (detected using a *phd3:GFP* transgenic line), which was also observed in infected macrophages at 1dpi (17), indicating that *il-1β*, alongside Hif signalling, is part of an immediate pro-inflammatory macrophage response.

We have previously demonstrated that stabilisation of Hif-1α can aid the zebrafish host control Mm infection, at least in part by priming neutrophils with increased nitrotyrosine generated by the Nos2 enzyme (17). This increase in neutrophil NO is independent of bacteria and here we demonstrate that it is independent of TLR signalling, indicating that this process is independent of bacterial sensing mechanisms. We also show that stabilisation of Hif-1α upregulates pro-inflammatory macrophage *il-1β* expression in the absence of an infection challenge. If Il-1β activity is repressed then Hif-1α induced reduction in bacterial burden is abrogated, alongside the Hif-1α dependent increase in NO production. These data show regulation of both Nos2 and Il-1β by Hif-1α, and that Hif-1α driven NO production is

partially dependent on Il-1β induction. Both human NOS-2 and IL-1β have HREs

(HIF responsive elements) in their promoters and direct regulation by HIF-α

signalling has been previously demonstrated *in vitro* (50, 51). Our data do not rule

out direct regulation of Nos2 by Hif-1α, as blocking Il-1β is likely to have wider

spread immune effects, however they do suggest that Nos2 is partially upregulated

by Il-1β in the stabilised Hif-1α context. These observations, alongside our finding

that blocking Il-1β, primarily observed in macrophages, can block Hif-1α induced

neutrophil nitrotyrosine production, indicate a close interplay between macrophages

and neutrophils during early infection that is not yet fully understood.

IL-1β is an important pro-inflammatory cytokine, but its processing by caspases also

plays a crucial role in immune cell pyroptosis mediated by the inflammasome (52).

Recent findings in the Mm/zebrafish model indicate that neutrophils and

macrophages can efficiently phagocytose bacteria and undergo rounds of cell death

and re-uptake during the initial days of infection (9). Although here we show a role

for early pro-inflammatory *il-1β* transcription during Mm infection, the role of Il-1β

processing and inflammasome induced pyroptosis/cell death in these early Mm

immune processes remain undetermined.

In conclusion, our data demonstrate an early pro-inflammatory response of Mm

infected macrophages. By stabilising Hif-1α, macrophage Il-1β can be primed in the

absence of infection and is protective upon Mm infection via neutrophil nitric oxide

production. Therapeutic strategies targeting these signalling mechanisms could

decrease the level of initial mycobacteria in patients and act to block the

development of active TB by reactivation of macrophage pro-inflammatory stimuli.

Therapies that target host-derived signalling pathways such as these would be

beneficial against multidrug resistant strains and could act to shorten the currently

long antibiotic therapies required to clear TB from patients.

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank the Bateson Centre Aquarium Team at the University

of Sheffield for fish care. We gratefully thank Georges Lutfalla (Montpellier

University) for providing the *Tg(mpeg1:mCherry-F)ump2Tg line,* Lalita

Ramakrishnan (University of Washington, Seattle) for M. marinum strains and Astrid

van der Sar (VU University Medical Center, Amsterdam) for the pSMT3-mCherry

vector.

P.M.E. is funded by a Sir Henry Dale Fellowship jointly funded by the Wellcome

Trust and the Royal Society (Grant Number 105570/Z/14/Z). S.A.R. is funded by an

MRC Programme Grant (MR/M004864/1). A.H.M. is funded by a Smart Mix Program

of the Netherlands Ministry of Economic Affairs and the Ministry of Education,

Culture and Science. NVO and HLW are funded by British Heart Foundation (BHF)

project grant (PG/13/80/30443) and Biotechnology and Biological Sciences

Research Council (BBSRC) project grant (BB/L000830/1).

Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: PME, SAR, NVO. Performed the

experiments: PME, NVO, AL. Analysed the data: PME, NVO, HW, AHM, SAR. Wrote

the paper: PME, NVO, SAR.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1. Dominant active Hif-1α mediated increase in anti-nitrotyrosine signal

is Myd-88 independent.

(A) Cartoon of embryo showing position of imaging for panels in A. Example

fluorescence confocal z-stacks of the caudal vein region of embryos stained with

Alexa-633 labeled anti-nitrotyrosine antibody (red), imaged at 1dpi in the presence or

absence of Mm infection. One-cell stage embryos were injected with phenol red (PR)

or dominant active Hif-1α (DA1). One-cell stage embryos we co-injected with *myd88*

morpholino or (myd88 MO) or standard control morpholino (Cont MO). At 1dpi larvae

were either infected with Mm mCherry (Mm), or PVP as a non-infected control (Mm

channel not shown in these panels).

(B) Corrected fluorescence intensity levels of anti-nitrotyrosine antibody confocal z-

stacks of phenol red (PR) control injected embryos in the presence or absence of

Mm infection at 1dpi. Control morpholino is shown in the clear bars and *myd88*

morpholino (myd-88 MO) in the filled bars. Data shown are mean ± SEM, n=70-72

cells from 10-12 embryos accumulated from 3 independent experiments.

Figure 2. *TgBAC(il-1β:GFP)sh445* is activated upon tailfin injury in first

neutrophils, then macrophages.

(A) Wholemount *in situ* hybridisation of *il-1β* in tailfin injured 2dpf embryos.

(B) Fluorescent confocal micrographs of *TgBAC(il-1β:GFP)sh445* expression after

tailfin injury. Upper and lower panels show the same individual embryo 0 and 12hpi.

(C) Cartoon of embryo showing position of imaging area of D and E and the dotted

line of tailfin transection.

(D) Fluorescent confocal micrographs of *TgBAC(il-1β:GFP)sh445* crossed to

Tg(lyz:Ds- RED2)nz50 labeling neutrophils at 1 hour post wound (1hpw) and 6hpw.

(E) Fluorescent confocal micrographs of *TgBAC(il-1β:GFP)sh445* crossed to

Tg(mpeg1:mCherryCAAX)sh378 line labeling macrophages at 1 hour post wound

(1hpw) and 6hpw.

Figure 3. *il-1β:GFP* is upregulated by Mm in infected macrophages at early and

later stage infection

A) Graph showing relative *il-1β* mRNA expression by SYBERgreen qPCR in Mm

infected 1dpi larvae (Mm) and mock injected controls (PVP). Data shown are mean ±

SEM, n=3 independent experiments.

(B) Fluorescent confocal micrographs of 1dpi, prior to granuloma formation (left

panel), and at 4dpi, in immune cells in blood vessels (middle panel, blood vessel

indicated by solid white lines) and early tissue granuloma (right panel). *il-1β*

expression was detected by GFP levels, in green, using the *TgBAC(il-1:eGFP)sh445*

transgenic line. Mm mCherry is shown in the red channel. Increased levels of *il-*

1β:GFP expression were detectable in cells associated with infection.

(C) Fluorescent confocal micrographs of a timelapse between 6 to 8 hours post Mm

infection. Mm mCherry is shown in the red channel and *il-1β:GFP* in the green

channel with the microscope settings set to detect low GFP levels. Arrowheads

indicate the emergence of *il-1β:GFP* expression in an infected cell.

(D) Cartoon of embryo showing position of imaging for panels in D. Fluorescent

confocal micrographs of 1dpi caudal vein region of infection. *il-1β* expression was

detected by GFP levels, in green, using the *TgBAC(il-1β:eGFP)sh445* transgenic

line. Macrophages are shown in red using a *Tg(mpeg1:mCherryCAAX)sh378* line.

Mm Crimson is shown in the blue channel (right panels) with a PVP control (left

panels). Without infection there is little overlap of *il-1β:GFP* and *mpeg:mCherry*,

while in infected larvae macrophages have higher levels of *il-1β:GFP*. Arrowheads

indicate infected macrophages with high levels of *il-1β:GFP.* Dotted lines indicate the

yolk extension of the larvae where there is non-specific fluorescence.

Figure 4. *il-1β:GFP* is upregulated in the absence of infection by DA Hif-1α

(A) Cartoon of embryo showing position of imaging for panels in A. Fluorescent

confocal micrographs of 1dpi caudal vein region of infection. *il-1β:GFP* expression

was detected by GFP levels, in green, using the *TgBAC(il-1:eGFP)sh445* transgenic

line. Larvae were injected at the 1 cell stage with dominant negative (DN) or

dominant active (DA) Hif-1α or phenol red (PR) control. Non-infected larvae are in

the left panels (PVP) and Mm Crimson infected larvae are in the right panels (Mm).

Dotted lines indicate the yolk extension of the larvae where there is non-specific

fluorescence.

(B) Corrected fluorescence intensity levels of *il-1β:GFP* confocal z-stacks in

uninfected larvae (PVP, empty bars) and infected larvae (Mm, filled bars) at 1dpi.

Dominant active Hif-1α (DA1) had significantly increased *il-1β:GFP* levels in the

absence of Mm bacterial challenge compared to phenol red (PR) and dominant

negative Hif-1α (DN1) injected controls. Data shown are mean ± SEM, n=24-48 cells

from 4-8 embryos representative of 3 independent experiments.

Figure 5. *il-1β* knockdown abrogated the protective effect of DA Hif-1α on

bacterial burden and anti-nitrotyrosine production

(A) Bacterial burden at 4dpi after injection of DA Hif-1α (DA1) and the *il-1β*

morpholino (Il-1 MO), using the standard control morpholino and phenol red (Control)

as a negative control. Data shown are mean ± SEM, n=46-50 as accumulated from 3

independent experiments.

(B) Bacterial burden of *il-1β* (il-1-/-) and sibling wildtype controls (WT) at 4dpi after

injection of DA Hif-1α (DA1) or phenol red (PR) as a negative control. Data shown

are mean ± SEM, n=16-20 as accumulated from 3 independent experiments.

(C) Cartoon of embryo showing position of imaging for panels in C. Example

fluorescence confocal z-stacks of the caudal vein region of embryos stained with

Alexa-633 labeled anti-nitrotyrosine antibody (red), imaged at 1dpi in the presence or

absence of Mm infection. One-cell stage embryos were injected with phenol red (PR,

left panel) or dominant active Hif-1α (DA1, right panel). One-cell stage embryos we

co-injected with *il-1β* morpholino or (il-1 MO) or standard control morpholino (Cont

MO). At 1dpi larvae were either infected with Mm mCherry (Mm), or PVP as a non-

infected control (Mm channel not shown in these panels).

(D) Corrected fluorescence intensity levels of anti-nitrotyrosine antibody confocal z-

stacks of phenol red (PR) control injected embryos in the presence or absence of

Mm infection at 1dpi. Control morpholino is shown in the clear bars and *il-1β*

morpholino (il-1 MO) in the filled bars. Data shown are mean ± SEM, n=54-59 cells

from 10-12 embryos accumulated from 3 independent experiments.

(E) Corrected fluorescence intensity levels of anti-nitrotyrosine antibody confocal z-

stacks of dominant active Hif-1α (DA1) injected embryos in the presence or absence

of Mm infection at 1dpi. Control morpholino is shown in the clear bars and il-1

morpholino (il-1 MO) in the filled bars. Data shown are mean ± SEM, n=54-59 cells

from 10-12 embryos accumulated from 3 independent experiments.

Supplemental Figure 1. CRISPR-Cas9 *il-1β SH446* mutant.

(A) Screenshot of Ensembl zebrafish *il-1β* coding sequence with CRISPR-Cas9

target indicated in the fourth exon.

(B) DNA alignment of WT *il-1β* sequence and *il-1βSH446* showing the 44 base pair

deletion caused by CRISPR-Cas9.

(C) Amino acid alignment of WT *il-1β* sequence and *il-1βSH446* with arrowhead

showing the premature stop and removal of the putative Il-1β cleavage site.

(D) Sequencing trace showing position of CRISPR-Cas9 induced deletion.

Supplemental Movie 1. *Il-1β:GFP* expression in activated immune cells after

Mm infection.

(A) Fluorescent confocal videotimelapse of *il-1β:GFP* in immune cells containing Mm

infection (*il-1β:GFP* in green and Mm mCrimson in red).

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

A — *il1-b*

Relative fold change expression — PVP, Mm — *

B — 1 dpi — il-1 GFP — Mm — Merge; 4 dpi — il-1 GFP — Mm — Merge; 4 dpi — il-1 GFP — Mm — Merge — 100 µm

C — il-1 GFP — Mm — 6h, 6h15m, 6h30m, 6h45m, 7h, 7h15m, 7h30m, 7h45m, 8h — 50 µm

D — 1dpi — il-1 GFP — mpeg mCherry — PVP — Merge; il-1 GFP — mpeg mCherry — Mm — Merge — 100 µm

Figure 4

Figure 5